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MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION

AND

THE ENDOWED SCHOOLS ACT

F. B. LEE

RIVINGTONS

MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION

MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION

AND THE WORKING OF THE

"ENDOWED SCHOOLS ACT"

BY THE REV.

J. B. LEE, M.A.

HEAD MASTER OF QUEEN ELIZABETH'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL, BARNET

WITH AN INTRODUCTORY NOTE

BY THE RIGHT REV.

THE LORD BISHOP OF LONDON

ONE OF THE "SCHOOLS ENQUIRY COMMISSIONERS"

RIVINGTONS

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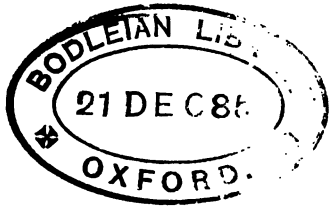
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FULHAM PALACE, S.W.,
October 10, 1885.

MY DEAR SIR,

I have read your Pamphlet with much care. You have handled a most important subject with thorough knowledge of the facts, and great foresight of probable consequences. I shall be very glad if you draw public attention to an aspect of the whole matter which at present, as it seems to me, we are all in danger of forgetting.

Yours very truly,

F. LONDIN:

REV. J. B. LEE.

PREFACE.

It may seem either too early or too late in the day to be reviewing the history of a movement not much more than twenty years old. But events now move so quickly that things which stir deeply the hearts of one generation, are often but faintly appreciated by the next. And so it is that now there are not wanting signs abroad which make it desirable to recall the Endowed Schools legislation of 1869 and the causes which led to it.

At the cost of encumbering my pages with references, I have thought it well, in describing the reforms proposed by the

Enquiry Commission, and the reasons for them, to give them as far as possible in the Commissioners' own words, and so to avoid the risk of misrepresenting either the one or the other.

J. B. L.

BARNET,
October, 1885.

MIDDLE-CLASS EDUCATION

AND THE WORKING OF THE "ENDOWED SCHOOLS ACT."

IN the year 1864 a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into the education given in certain endowed schools, and to suggest measures for its improvement. There had been previously two Commissions of Enquiry into English education: the first appointed in 1858, to report on the education of boys and girls of the labouring class; and the second appointed in 1861, to report on the nine greater public schools of the country. The scope of the Commission of 1864 accordingly embraced all schools which lay between those dealt with by the Commissions of 1858 and 1861, that is to say, the great mass of schools known chiefly by the name of "Grammar Schools," and intended for the education of the middle classes. The enquiry instituted by the Commissioners extended over the years 1865–67, during which vast numbers of schools were personally visited by the Assistant-Commissioners, and searching enquiry made into

their working. The result of these investigations appeared in the year 1868, in the shape of an exhaustive Report contained in a Blue Book of twenty volumes. Upon this Report was founded the Endowed Schools Act of 1869, which gave authority first to the "Endowed Schools Commissioners," and afterwards to the "Charity Commissioners," to frame new schemes for the better working of the schools dealt with by the enquiry, and also for the further advancement of education by diverting for the benefit of schools other endowments not originally intended for educational purposes.

The present is an attempt to give, in as concise a form as possible—

I. The general results of the Commission of Enquiry.

II. The measures proposed by the Commissioners for the improvement of education.

III. Some remarks and criticisms suggested by ten years' experience of the working of the Endowed Schools Act.

I.

It is important at the outset to define clearly the meaning of the name "Grammar Schools," and the purpose of their founders in establishing them. If one thing is clearer than another, it is that they

were founded for the purpose of providing, not "primary" or "elementary" education, but "secondary." In the words of the Commissioners, "the very name of grammar school has always been understood, and rightly understood, to imply that the school was intended to teach something more than the elements, and that some fair amount of preliminary education had already been given before the scholar entered the walls."[1] In establishing these schools, it was not their founders' intention to cover the whole field of education, but to put within the reach of deserving scholars, who might otherwise be unable from personal poverty or local needs to obtain them, the benefits of the higher education of the day. In what that "higher education" consisted at the time of the foundation of most of our grammar schools there can be no question. A school for teaching "grammar" at that time meant a school for teaching Latin certainly (and perhaps Greek), for the simple reason that there was then no other grammar but the grammar of these languages in existence. This interpretation of the meaning and purpose of a grammar school was enforced by the famous decision of Lord Chancellor Eldon, in the case of the Leeds Grammar School, in 1805; and his

[1] Report, vol. i. p. 192.

decision was confirmed by the "Grammar Schools Act" of 3 & 4 Vict.

"It is safe, then, to assume," say the Commissioners, "that the main object of those who founded the Endowed Schools was to promote education,"[1] that is to say, "the education of a scholar."[2] It was no part of their purpose to benefit the places where they set up their schools, or to relieve parents of the burden of educating their children.[3] It was the interests of education and the advancement of learning that they sought, not the pecuniary benefit of persons or places. In other words, they wished to secure a share in "secondary" or "higher education" for boys who otherwise, from the accident of poverty or their place of residence, must have been content with inferior instruction. "They intended boys of more than average ability to find in these schools the means of a first-rate education, which would qualify them afterwards for useful service to the Church and State."[4]

Now, how did the Commissioners find that this purpose and intention of the schools and their founders had been carried out? Down to the beginning of the present century it would seem that the schools continued to do their destined

[1] Report, i. p. 573. [2] Id., p. 574. [3] Id., p. 573.
[4] Id., p. 93.

work with considerable success. "Our history is full of names of men who have risen by their learning, and not a few from comparative obscurity. And in a great majority of cases these men obtained their early education in the first instance from the nearest country grammar school, and sometimes not only their early education, but exhibitions to enable them to complete that education at the universities."[1] But the schools had now ceased to fulfil the purpose of their founders. The reason is obvious. The "higher education" of the country was no longer confined to the study of Latin and Greek, which alone the schools were competent to teach. New subjects of study had sprung up, new sciences were beginning to engross attention, the cultivation of modern languages became imperative on all who aspired to the position of an educated man. Moreover, society had become more complex and varied, and it was now no longer right that every one should receive the same kind of education. And so the machinery which was quite able to supply the old learning "so long as education was comparatively simple and uniform, and all classes could be educated together,"[2] now broke down under the unwonted strain. The condition of the Endowed Schools

[1] Report, i. p. 92. [2] Id., p. 93.

became "chaotic." "The grammar schools had either sunk from one rank to another, till they had descended below even the national schools, or else they had maintained their classical teaching and lost their scholars. The result was that a boy of superior ability who might have been living in the neighbourhood of an old grammar school could not now find there what he wanted to give him an opening."[1] The poorer grammar schools being unable any longer to supply the "higher education" according to modern ideas, gave up the attempt to supply any "higher education" at all. "In the grammar schools, where classics had been abandoned, no fair substitute for them had been provided. . . . For the most part, a descent had been made from the highest to the meanest kind of teaching."[2] In short, endowments which were originally intended to supply "secondary" education were now contented to give "primary." Of this diversion from the original design Barnet Grammar School affords a typical example. When Mr. Fearon visited the place in 1866, he found that "the secondary education of Barnet was principally in the hands of private teachers. The gentry sent their sons to public and proprietary schools; the farmers and tradesmen generally to private board-

[1] Report, i. p. 94. [2] Id., p. 137.

ing schools."[1] Of the grammar school he says: "The school is mainly a private country boarding and day school, in which the master, in consideration of the sum of £49 16*s.* 1½*d.*, and a house provided for him from a public source, teaches ten boys, free of expense (with the exception of a payment of 6*s.* a year for use of books and firing) for forty-four weeks in the year, thirty-one hours a week, reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, grammar, English; and Latin, book-keeping, and mathematics if they require it."[2] "The education of these free boys thus costs a little over five guineas a head per annum."[3] This was all that the foundation, intended for the promotion of higher education, then did for the place. But to eke out his income, the master had grafted a private school of his own upon the public grammar school. "There were also forty non-foundation scholars in the school, of whom ten were day boys and thirty were boarders in the master's house. These are regarded entirely as the private pupils of the master, the governors not interfering with them in any way, except to guarantee that the foundation boys be taught along with them, and classified and treated with them in a similar manner."[4] The fees for these non-

[1] Report xii., p. 108. [2] Id., p. 107. [3] Id., p. 106. [4] Id., ib.

foundationers were: for day boys (if they learnt English, Latin, French, and drawing), seven guineas per annum; for boarders, twenty-four or twenty-five guineas, according to age.

So far had Queen Elizabeth's foundation for the promotion of higher education at Barnet travelled from its original purpose. And what had happened in this case had happened also in the case of many, if not most, of the poorer foundations throughout the country. Doubtless the work which they professed to do they were often doing fairly well, as is reported by Mr. Fearon of Barnet. But it was not the work which they were intended to do, or which it was desirable that they should now be doing. And in consequence the education of England was fast falling far below that of other countries.

It is well to consider how this diversion of endowments intended for "secondary" education to the promotion of "primary" was working. Briefly stated, it was ruining the education of the middle classes while not really advancing that of the poorer classes. The middle classes were being deprived *en masse* of that education which was suitable to their status and requirements; while, if the poorer classes were obtaining an education suitable in kind to their needs, it was probably

inferior in quality to that which might be obtained in an inspected elementary school. Indeed, though the wrong done to the middle classes was by far the greater, inasmuch as their loss was of universal application, yet some of the poorer classes too had real cause of complaint. From poor boys of high ability were thus cut off their chances of rising into a higher position through their being unable to obtain that more advanced education which would qualify them to fill it. To redress this wrong by restoring to the middle classes generally, and to those poor boys of ability who were especial objects of the founders' solicitude, the benefits of "higher education," is the main purpose of the "Endowed Schools Act." No hardship is inflicted on the poor generally by this restoration. For the loss of what they had temporarily enjoyed to the serious loss of the country at large has been more than compensated for by the establishment of the admirable system of national and board schools, under Government inspection, which now cover the land; while the claim of the poor boy of superior ability to the higher education is recognized and promoted by the plan of free education in "secondary" schools by means of exhibitions. In this way as exact a return to the original purpose of the grammar schools as the changed conditions of

society will allow may be said to have been accomplished. For, as the Commissioners remark, "to say that the founders intended to teach Latin and Greek to no more than the few who now desire to learn it, or to say that they intended to teach something useful to the mass of the population who are now within reach of their schools, is rather to distort than to represent their original purpose."[1] Rather, may it be repeated, would it have been their desire to put an advanced education suitable to the time and to the needs of the individual, within the reach of all who were capable of profiting by it.

II.

Having thus described the general working of the Commission of Enquiry and the abuses thereby brought to light, we may now proceed to consider the measures of reform proposed by the Commissioners. They start, then, from the fundamental proposition that their business is only with the schools "which were intended to give, or which now actually give, a higher education than that given in the national or British schools, or were intended to educate, or do now actually educate, that part of the community which usually requires such a higher education."[2] In other words, they hold that

[1] Report, i. p. 93. [2] Id., p. 108.

their duty is to consider the best means of improving the supply of "secondary" education for the middle classes. The following are among the chief recommendations which they make to this end.

1. *The Schools should be graded.* We have seen (p. 6) the evils which arose from the schools, in their unreformed state, being unable to keep pace with the growth of modern subjects of education. The field was now too wide for any one school to cover the whole. The attempt to do so should therefore be discouraged. "It is no longer needful, and it is certainly not desirable, for each school to endeavour to meet the varied educational wants of the whole immediate neighbourhood."[1] On the contrary, "the first requisite is to assign definite functions to the schools, so as to prevent all trying to answer every purpose and thereby few succeeding in answering any."[2] For this purpose the schools should be graded, *i.e.* marked off into classes according to the prevailing type of education to be given in each. This type would be settled mainly by the length of time during which parents would be willing to keep their children at school. "Viewed in this way, it was found that education could be classified as that which is to stop at about fourteen, that which is to stop at about sixteen, and that

[1] Report, i. p. 116. [2] Id., p. 183.

which is to continue till eighteen or nineteen."[1] Accordingly the Commissioners recommended that there should be three grades of schools, distinguished as follows:—

(*a*) FIRST-GRADE SCHOOLS, which should carry on education to the age of eighteen or nineteen. "Most of the schools of this grade would make it their chief aim to prepare for the Universities,"[2] and to train the sons of "men with considerable incomes independent of their own exertions, or professional men, and men in business whose profits put them on the same level;"[3] or, again, of all "parents of good education but confined means."[4] These schools would be generally classical schools, but with latitude allowed for the more advanced study of modern languages, mathematics, or science.

(*b*) SECOND-GRADE SCHOOLS, for boys continuing their education to sixteen or seventeen. "These schools would prepare youths for business, for several professions, for manufactures, for the army, for many departments of the Civil Service. Many of the farmers, many of the richer shopkeepers, many professional men, all but the wealthier gentry, would probably wish to have their sons educated in schools of this sort, if the education were tho-

[1] Report, i. p. 15. [2] Id., p. 86. [3] Id., p. 16.
[4] Id., p. 17.

roughly good of its kind."[1] "Latin would be a necessity in all but a very few of these schools, since most of the occupations presuppose it in some degree, and many of the examinations prescribe it."[2] In addition to Latin, one or perhaps two modern languages, English literature, and practical mathematics would find a place.[3]

(*c*) THIRD-GRADE SCHOOLS, for boys whose education is to stop at the age of fourteen or fifteen. These schools would train boys to become skilled artisans by providing them with "that basis of sound general education on which alone technical instruction can rest."[4] They would provide instruction for the children of "the artisans, the small shopkeepers, the smaller farmers,"[5] and indeed "for the whole of the lowest portion of what is commonly called the middle class."[6] In them would be taught reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar and history, either the elements of Latin or some modern language, drawing, and a little mathematics.[7]

While on this point of the grading of schools, we must not omit to mention one important recommendation of the Commissioners, and that is, the provision of *lower or preparatory divisions* for

[1] Report, i. p. 84. [2] Id., ib. [3] Id., ib. [4] Id., p. 79.
[5] Id., ib. [6] Id., p. 80. [7] Id., ib.

the schools of each grade. These lower divisions should provide for "the thorough teaching of the elementary subjects."[1] They may be separate, or united to the upper divisions in the same school.[2] "Preparatory schools of the first grade should always be separate;"[3] "of the second grade would be better separate;"[4] while those of the third grade should always be united with the schools for which they prepare.[5] The lower divisions of schools of the first grade would carry on the education of boys up to thirteen or fourteen, those of the second grade to twelve or thirteen, those of the third grade to twelve. In all cases an examination in the elementary subjects taught in the lower division of the school should be required of boys passing to the upper division. It is impossible to overrate the benefits of such a division of the schools. As the Commissioners say, "the elementary subjects are, above all others, those which are most useful in the occupations of life, and most indispensable in the estimation of the parents."[6] To secure thorough grounding in these subjects is the purpose of the lower schools, while the requirement of the examination on passing from the lower to the upper, "concentrates the attention of the

[1] Report, i. p. 88. [2] Id., p. 89. [3] Id., p. 92.
[4] Id., p. 91. [5] Id., p. 90. [6] Id., p. 88.

teachers upon them, and compels everything else to be held subordinate, till these have been first mastered." [1]

2. *Local privileges, where existing, should be abolished.* Much misunderstanding was found to prevail with regard to the area whence the schools were to draw their scholars. "In a very large number of cases the founders either said nothing about it or expressly left it perfectly open. . . . The benefit designed for the town or parish was a good school within its boundary, to which all inhabitants might resort without fear or favour. A grammar school *in* a town did not mean a grammar school *confined* to a town." [2] And so, accordingly, a strong opinion is expressed that "to confine the benefit of a school within an ancient boundary, as if a town or parish lost the benefit of its school in so far as any non-parishioner was taught there, is to travesty the founders' intentions, and imprison their bounty within the walls which they built for its protection. Yet nothing is more common than to find such interpretations practically put upon the founders' intentions, and the schools rendered useless, or even harmful, in consequence." [3] Even where local privileges were found to exist, they had not in

[1] Report, i. p. 89. [2] Id., p. 125. [3] Id., p. 127.

most cases been derived from the original charters, but had been "introduced subsequently to the endowment by orders of the Court."[1] All these injurious accretions upon the original foundations should therefore be swept away, for "the mere fact of living on one side or another of a fixed line ought not to entitle one boy to privileges from which another is excluded."[2]

3. *Schools should not be confined to one class of society.* On this point also, as under the preceding head, a departure was found to have been made in some cases from the original purpose of the schools. "The scholars for whom the grammar schools were provided were of no one class in particular. Most usually 'children' or 'youth' is the only term used to describe them. The school was to be for such as required an education in grammar, and among them would be some of all classes, but many more of those above the labouring classes than of those below. The poor, indeed, are frequently named, but rather in a way that indicates the desire to keep the door wide open for their reception, than the expectation that they would form the majority of the scholars."[3] As well illustrating the unrestricted nature of the original foundations, we may cite the words of the

[1] Report, i. p. 595. [2] Id., ib. [3] Id., p. 121.

letters patent of Queen Elizabeth, under which the grammar school of Barnet was established. On the petition of the Earl of Leicester in 1573, leave was granted to found "a common grammar school in or near the town of Barnet, for the education, bringing up, and instruction of boys and youth in grammar and other learning."[1] Nothing can be freer or more unrestricted than the terms of this charter. The benefits of the foundation were intended for "boys and youth" generally without any distinction of place of residence or class of society. All who desired instruction in "grammar and other learning" would be welcomed. And, as if to emphasize this free invitation to all who might choose to accept it, the epithet "common" is here, as in very many other cases, prefixed to the name "grammar school." In the English of the day the word "common" (*communis*) admitted but of one interpretation, viz. "public" or "open to all;" and so, as applied to a school, meant one to which all might freely resort, without any restriction whatever.[2] And yet in course of time a custom had in many cases sprung up of admitting only those boys to the privileges of a foundation whose

[1] Report, xii. p. 106.

[2] Compare "Common" Prayer, "common" lands, etc.

parents could not otherwise afford to send them to the school. With regard to this, the Commissioners declare, "We are decidedly of opinion that even in the interest of the poor themselves, and still more in the interest of education generally, no such restriction should be maintained. . . . These class distinctions within any school are exceedingly mischievous, both to those whom they raise and to those whom they lower." [1]

4. *Indiscriminate gratuitous instruction should be abolished.* In some cases, but by no means in all, the founders of grammar schools had provided that all, or a certain proportion of the scholars, should be instructed without payment. But, as the Commissioners observe, "the calculations of the founders, when they gave an endowment and ordered no fees to be charged, either were originally mistaken or were defeated by the change in the value of money and the social condition of the country. The prohibition of fees created serious difficulty. The endowments failed to furnish an adequate income for the payment of the master or masters, and the school could not discharge its intended function, unless some addition could be made to its funds." [2] Moreover, "a school in which the instruction is gratuitous is liable to be

[1] Report, i. p. 596. [2] Id., p. 45.

filled, not with those poor children who would be really the better for it, but by all, indiscriminately, and more largely by the children of parents whose first object is to save the payment of fees than by the children of parents whose first object is to procure the best education. The result is that the school is first lowered in character, and then a demand is made to lower the standard of instruction. The true aim of the founder is doubly defeated. The school neither gives a high kind of education nor supplies openings for poor children of exceptional talents."[1] This is a most serious consideration, for it should never be forgotten that even where the founder provided for freedom from payment, his "school was gratuitous for the boy's, not for the parent's, benefit. When a founder ordered that his school should not be a 'school of exaction,' it was in order to confer on the child of the poor, as well as the rich, the inestimable boon of a high education, not to make a petty distribution of alms to the parents."[2] The provision of this "high education" was, in their minds, paramount to all other considerations. In so far, then, as indiscriminate gratuitous instruction prevented the spread of learning, the founders would be among the first to desire its abolition. It is evident that

[1] Report, i. p. 575. [2] Id., p. 124.

it must be such an obstacle to "high education" in all but the very richest foundations, for "very few of the grammar school endowments can, unassisted by fees, educate more than a very limited number of scholars, at least of the first or second grade."[1] No argument as to the intention of founders to provide gratuitous instruction can be necessarily deduced from the use of the term "free" in many of the charters. The word "free" (*libera*) would appear never at any period, when used by itself, to mean "gratuitous," but rather "open to all," and so synonymous with "common," as explained under the previous head, or perhaps "free from capricious control." It would seem clear that in many cases "free" *could* not mean "gratuitous," seeing that the founders of the school—*i.e.* those who procured the charter, in which the word occurs—did not also endow it, and consequently other means must have been provided for the payment of the master and the carrying on of the school. This was the case at Barnet. It was not until several years after the date of its charter that funds were provided for the erection of a school-house, and still later that a money endowment was obtained for the payment of the master. It is clear, therefore, that from the first, in such schools

[1] Report, i. p. 148.

as that of Barnet, fees must have been paid by most of the scholars sufficient to cover the cost of their education. As time went on and other benefactions were bestowed, it became possible to increase the number of scholars receiving gratuitous instruction, until in many schools the freedom from payment became universal, to the serious injury of education itself.

5. *Gratuitous instruction should only be given as a reward of merit.* But though the Commissioners, finding that "the result of *indiscriminate* gratuitous instruction was simply to degrade a school and make it useless even to those whom it proposed to benefit,"[1] came to the conclusion that it must be abolished, yet they by no means wished to sweep away free education altogether. Their aim rather was to "confine it to those who are most capable of profiting by it."[2] To this end they recommended that a system of exhibitions and free scholarships should be established, by which boys of superior ability might be selected by competition to receive wholly or partially free that education which their abilities would enable them to profit by. For these exhibitions, in the Commissioners' judgment, "the freer the competition the better."[3] But in many cases, in order to give the deserving

[1] Report, i. p. 594. [2] Id., ib. [3] Id., p. 595.

poor boy every chance of rising in life, the framers of the new scheme have directed that, "in the first instance," a certain proportion of these free scholarships should be offered for competition only to scholars in the elementary schools of the district. This system has been in operation at Barnet from the date of the new scheme, and I propose to offer a few remarks on its results a little later on. (See page 36.)

6. *Fees should be charged bearing due relation to the cost of the instruction given.* "That fees should be imposed is necessary in order to supplement the endowment, and to prevent the grammar school from competing with the elementary school."[1] The question remained to settle the rate at which fees should be fixed. This was done by a careful examination of the cost of the several grades of education in unendowed schools (whether private or proprietary), and so arriving at the true market value. Thus it was found that, "taking one school with another, it may be said that the average cost of a good education in a private day school, including Latin, with some little Greek, mathematics, French, and the English and commercial subjects, is from £12 12*s.* to £21 per annum. Similarly, a plain commercial and English educa-

[1] Report, i. p. 161.

tion costs £4 4*s.* to £8 8*s.* . . . French, when an extra, averages £2 2*s.* per annum; drawing, £2 2*s.* to £3 3*s.*"[1] On applying these calculations to the case of endowed schools, it was found[2] that education might be provided in a first-grade school at from £12 12*s.* to £26 5*s.* per annum; in a second-grade at from £6 6*s.* to £12 12*s.*; and in a third-grade at from £2 2*s.* to £4 4*s.* "In all these cases the sum is exclusive of the cost of buildings, rates, taxes, repairs, and exhibitions."[3] Accordingly, where the endowment was large the framers of the new schemes settled the limits of the fees to be charged by the governors very much according to this scale. In schools with poorer foundations the rate was of necessity fixed somewhat higher.

The foregoing are (with one important omission to be dealt with presently) the fundamental principles on which the Commissioners recommended that the reconstruction of the grammar schools should proceed. Various other matters are treated of in their Report—such as the constitution of the boards of governors, tenure and salaries of masterships, powers of governors and masters, conscience clauses, examination of schools, creation of new schools, etc., re-endowment of poorer schools, and the like—which do not call for detailed examination.

[1] Report, i. p. 166. [2] Id., p. 583. [3] Id., p. 148.

So overwhelming was the weight of the arguments adduced in favour of their recommendations, that when the "Endowed Schools Act" was passed in 1869, it gave the force of law to all those which have been examined above, and accordingly they have been inserted in all the new schemes which have been framed under its powers. One only recommendation of the Commissioners, as has been said, did not receive the sanction of Parliament, it being Mr. Forster's intention to embody it in a separate Bill to be introduced at a later time. But up to the present day this recommendation, though perhaps the most fundamental of all, is still a dead letter. It is as follows:—

7. *Provincial authorities should be appointed to fix the due relation of the schools of a district to each other.* The importance of such a provision as this will at once be seen. The adoption of the plan of "grading" schools rendered it necessary that they should no longer be dealt with as separate entities, but in groups having a real and tangible bond of connexion within themselves. The very name "grade" implies such a connexion; for, as it should be carefully borne in mind, it has not in itself any reference to different classes of society using different schools, but bears its literal meaning of "a step." The different grades of

schools are thus links in a chain—or, to use a metaphor much in vogue at the time of the passing of the "Endowed Schools Act," "rounds in the ladder which should lead from the gutter to the universities." Thus, by securing for a district different grades of schools properly affiliated to each other, a promising boy would be passed on (by means of scholarships and exhibitions) from one grade to another, perhaps step by step from the lowest to the highest, and thence, by the same beneficent process, transferred to the universities. But to carry out this plan successfully it would be necessary to have some guiding authority to take charge of the education of entire districts; to settle the grade of individual schools in their districts, and provide proper means of passing from one grade to another. "It was obvious that the duty of fixing the grade of the schools of a whole district could not be entrusted to the governors of the schools themselves. Their position would naturally lead them to look too exclusively to the supposed interest of their separate schools, whereas the interests of the district as a whole ought to be taken as the guide."[1] To escape, then, from the narrowing influence of mere local interests and local jealousies, it was proposed that some provin-

[1] Report, i. p. 583.

cial authority should be appointed to undertake the important charge just described. What the extent of the jurisdiction of such an authority should be was not definitely laid down, but an opinion was expressed by the Commissioners that the counties would probably form suitable units for the purpose. This part of their great plan for the improvement of middle-class education in England still remains, as has been said, in abeyance; and in so far their work can only produce results mutilated and imperfect. It is to be hoped that any future action for the improvement of education in England will include this completion of a noble design among its very first steps. The statesman who should apply himself successfully to accomplish such a task would be deserving of a very high place among the benefactors of his country.

III.

It remains now to take a brief survey of some of the principal results of a system which has been sufficiently long in working to give a fair taste of its quality. There can be no question then, I think, that the plan of enlarging the curriculum of instruction, marking off schools into grades, giving each grade its own special work, and securing that

that work should be well done by the guarantee of examinations by public and independent authorities, has tended greatly to widen the field of knowledge among the middle classes generally. A great stimulus has been given to the study of modern languages, especially in schools of the second grade, where French and German are no longer taught as extraneous to the ordinary work of the school, but have largely taken the place of Latin and Greek as class subjects. There is no longer the scandal of English boys being brought up in ignorance of the English language and of their own literature, which is inferior to none, but both are now taught systematically. History, geography, and natural science now take their place side by side with the old classical and mathematical training. Opportunity is thus given of drawing out and encouraging the bent of many boys who, under the old training, would have passed through their school life without profit, simply because they had no turn for the narrow round of studies then pursued. The abolition of local and class privileges has let in the light of free competition everywhere, and the standard of attainment in all schools has been thereby vastly raised. The payment of fees bearing some proportion to the value of the education received has had the double advantage, first,

of enabling the old foundations to provide a wider and sounder course of instruction, and secondly (on the principle of what is got for nothing being valued at nothing), of securing a livelier interest among parents in the progress of their children, and a corresponding zeal in the children themselves.

These are effects which are showing themselves throughout the country generally. But my purpose here is not to bestow indiscriminate praise on a system which needs no such certificate from any individual, inasmuch as its beneficial results are patent to all men. It is rather my wish to contribute, in however small a degree, to the means of further improving the system by calling attention to some points which have seemed to me, during ten years' working of a second-grade school, to require change or modification.

I will begin, then, with what I consider to be the most serious defect—indeed, the only one which can be called fundamental, the other criticisms which I have to offer being only on matters of detail. This defect is the want of that provincial authority for the grouping and affiliation of schools which was explained at the end of the last section (p. 24). So serious is this defect that the carrying out of all the rest of the Commissioners' recommendations without this may be likened to

raising the superstructure of a building before the foundation is laid. The schools, as now constituted, stand as isolated units, and being in themselves, through the limitations imposed upon them as to the age of the scholars and the course of instruction, incapable of even attempting to cover the whole field, can offer an education complete only as regards a portion of those who use it, but, when viewed broadly with reference to the needs of an entire district, sectional and imperfect. This applies, of course, chiefly to schools of the second and third grade, which can only carry on the education of their scholars to a certain age, and in which the teaching of some subjects is practically forbidden. The result must be, that in a district which is supplied only with a second or a third grade school without any means of passing on deserving scholars to schools of a higher grade, whole classes of society are cut off from the highest education altogether. These districts must now be worse off in that respect than they were under the old system. The old grammar schools did attempt, and in many cases successfully, to give to a clever boy that insight into the highest education of the day which should qualify him for distinguishing himself in after life. Many of the old country grammar schools which can point to instances of

this kind in their past history, are now converted into schools of the second, or even of the third grade, and so, *ipso facto*, rendered incapable in themselves of ever performing such a service again. This surely is a result which every one must regret. It is a wrong done to whole masses of the population, especially in country districts, which can only be set right by carrying out the recommendations of the Commissioners in their entirety, and providing real and practicable means whereby a clever boy, in whatever rank of life and wherever residing, may be put within reach of the highest education of the day.

Connected with the defect just spoken of, and even intensifying it, is the embargo which is practically laid upon the teaching of Greek in all but schools of the first grade. In most schools of the second grade it is provided that Greek should not form part of the regular curriculum, but may be taught as an extra at a fee of £3 per annum. In practice this is found to amount almost to a prohibition of its being taught altogether.[1] To parents who may not themselves have had the advantage of the higher education, the additional fee is sufficient to act as a deterrent. The very fact of its imposition proclaims the subject to be,

[1] At Barnet the proportion of those learning Greek never exceeds four or five per cent. of the total number of scholars.

as they think, a luxury, and so unnecessary for their children. To the majority of boys, on the other hand, the fact of its being an "extra," and so involving additional work, is quite sufficient to render it distasteful. So long as Greek forms an integral part of the course at the universities, and of the examinations for the highest walks of professional life, this tax upon its study must be a great evil. Many a poor boy of marked ability, who might have distinguished himself in life, is thus, by the ignorance or indifference of parents, and the imperfection of the present school system, handicapped at his very entry on the race for fame. He is at once deprived of a fair start for all the higher professions, and, indeed, for all the walks of life which are entered through the doors of the universities. And unless he can, in after years, and by abnormal exertions, make up for the loss of his schoolboy days (which can be expected but of few), he will be cut off from such positions altogether.

An actual instance of the mischievous working of this prohibition of Greek is worth more than all the theorizing on the subject. At Aldenham Grammar School there is an election every year to a scholarship of the value of £30 per annum, the competition for which is restricted to boys under fourteen, *being pupils of grammar schools in the*

county of Hertford. Some years ago there was a boy at Barnet Grammar School to whom, as he was possessed of considerable ability, his parents wished to give the chance of passing to a school of a higher grade. The scholarship at Aldenham, if it could be obtained, seemed exactly to supply the means of doing so. I accordingly communicated with the authorities at Aldenham, and was told that the candidates would be required to show a proficiency in Greek. The boy had learnt no Greek, as very few boys in second-grade schools do for the reasons given above, and though his parents were now willing that he should learn, it was found that before the next election at Aldenham came round, by which time he might have acquired a little, he would have passed the age to which the scholarships were limited. Thus his chances of securing a more advanced education were altogether lost, his parents being unable to give it him without assistance. Since that time many similar cases have come under my notice, and in this way, even where the liberality of private founders has seemed to anticipate the recommendations of the Commissioners,[1] their intentions have been defeated through this hitch in the working of the present school system.

[1] Report, i. p. 603.

The fact that the prohibition of Greek thus fails to provide for a change of mind in parents with regard to the future of their sons, shows itself otherwise than in the obstacles which it puts in the way of transferring boys from schools of a lower to a higher grade. For instance, when a boy is first entered at school his parents may either have no definite idea of what his future occupation in life will be, or, if the father is "in business," they may purpose in some general way to let the son follow the steps of the father. But by-and-by the boy develops a taste for learning and wishes to enter a profession. It was calculated (see p. 12) that second-grade schools would qualify boys for such professions as are not usually entered through the universities. The father then is quite justified in supposing that, roughly speaking, the training his son is receiving will adapt him for the new line of life which he has chosen. But here again comes in the difficulty about Greek. The boy has almost certainly learnt no Greek, and is now probably too old to begin it with the hope of becoming a proficient in it. It is true that the legal and medical professions do not make Greek a *necessary* subject in their examinations, but the value of a knowledge of it, as helping to the right understanding of terms, especially in medical science, cannot be over-

rated. And there is the further consideration, by no means to be omitted, that so long as the universities set their stamp upon Greek as an indispensable part of the equipment of an educated gentleman, so long will those who enter the learned professions without it find themselves at fault. And so it has come about that many a parent has lamented to me, when his boy at the age of fifteen or sixteen has expressed a wish to enter a profession, that the present regulations as to Greek have put a serious obstacle in the way of his success.

I cannot but think that the proper remedy for this serious evil is, while still excluding Greek from the regular course in second-grade schools, to remove the extra fee for its teaching. It would still be well to render it impossible for a master with strong views about the desirability of teaching Greek, to devote himself to that subject to the detriment of others more suitable to the bulk of his scholars. And so no boy should be required to learn it without the express wish of his parent. But at the same time all impediments in the way of its being acquired by those who really wish it, and to whom it would be of incalculable value, should be removed.

As a general reflexion on this part of the subject, I would express a strong opinion that the

policy of cutting up education, as it were, into strata, thus laying down impassable barriers whereby one section of the population is rendered incapable of entering into the views or sympathizing with the tastes of another, is contrary to the whole traditions of English life. The tendency of this policy must be to ultimately set class against class, and to destroy that good feeling between different sections of society which has always hitherto prevailed. While the sons of the labouring man, of the tradesman, of the professional man, and of the squire have all, at any rate, an opportunity of tasting of the same Pierian spring, a great cause of jealousy between them must assuredly be removed. The value of this mixture of classes in the pursuit of education as seen in the schools of Scotland is recognized by the Commissioners, who say that "there can be no doubt that it largely contributes to that general diffusion of intelligence for which Scotland is remarkable."[1] It is, therefore, devoutly to be wished that before long, by the completion of the Commissioners' plan, and the providing of links between groups of schools, England may be put in the enjoyment of the same advantages as the sister kingdom.

One step indeed—the first—towards raising this

[1] Report, i. p. 59.

educational ladder has, as we have seen (p. 21), been already taken. In the schemes of some second and third grade schools, provision has been made for the reception of scholars from elementary schools, by means of free scholarships provided out of the endowments of the secondary schools. This is the case at Barnet, where some two or three such scholarships are offered every year for competition to the elementary schools of the district. But the result has been far from fulfilling the expectations of the Commissioners, or of those who have the elevation of the masses at heart. During ten years of the working of this plan, out of some fifteen elementary schools within the privileged area, and to which due notice of the coming examination has been regularly sent, *only five* have ever sent candidates. For the most part, *only three* avail themselves of the privilege, while the candidates they send are so few in number that the average entry, from all taken together, is about two candidates for each scholarship offered, or, after eliminating those who manifestly had no chance of success, there are, perhaps, fewer real candidates than scholarships. The causes of this signal failure are probably these: (1) the not unnatural reluctance of the managers and teachers of elementary schools to part with their best boys, and so to lose the

credit of a successful examination of their own schools and, what is more tangible still, the money grant which their scholars would earn; (2) the unwillingness of the parents themselves to prolong the education of their children, and so forego the benefit of the wages they might earn, besides having to incur additional expense in providing superior clothing to enable their sons to mix without a sense of inferiority with the classes above them.

If the system of providing education for elementary scholars in secondary schools is to succeed, these obstacles, which are very real, must be met without delay. With regard to the first—the loss of the grant, etc., to the elementary schools—I would suggest that the Education Department should either secure to the school, which has obtained a scholarship in a secondary school, the full amount of the grant for the average number of years which would elapse before the successful scholar would have passed the sixth standard; or, which would be far better, at once give a bonus somewhat exceeding in value the amount of the grant which had probably been lost, as a reward to the successful school.[1] This latter plan would have the

[1] It is difficult to give an accurate estimate of the loss sustained by an elementary school through the withdrawal of one of its best scholars. The *average* grant per head must not exceed 17*s.* 6*d.* a year, but a boy who was presumably among the very best scholars

advantage of stimulating the elementary schools of a district to prepare their best boys to compete for the "secondary" scholarships. There would no longer be the objection arising from the diminution in the amount of credit to be gained at the annual inspection; for the success in obtaining the scholarship would now have to be brought before the Education Department, and so would be recorded by the inspector in his report; while the increased pecuniary advantage to be gained would not only compensate for the loss of the grant—which, so long as payment by results is rigidly the rule, cannot be looked upon as of small importance—but would also provide an *honorarium* for the additional pains which the master may have taken in preparing his candidates. We should then, probably, no longer have to complain of the want of competition for these "secondary" scholarships which now prevails.

would probably earn considerably more than this. Then again, the loss of his school-pence must be taken into account, so that altogether we should not be far wrong in estimating the total loss at from 25*s.* to 35*s.* per annum. It does not follow that the *master* would sustain the whole of this loss, as his share of the grant varies in different places, but as the reluctance of managers as well as teachers to part with scholars has to be reckoned with, it is best to take the whole loss into account. It must be added also, as I am reminded by the experienced manager of an elementary school, that a few *very good* scholars might be the means of bringing up a school to the 17*s.* 6*d.* average, and so staving off the disabilities imposed by recent regulations upon schools which fail to attain it."

Rather would there spring up a wholesome rivalry among the elementary schools of a district, each striving to outvie its neighbour in the number of scholarships it could gain. In my opinion, this would be a far better use of public money than to employ it in increasing the number of "higher elementary schools," or in introducing into existing schools a seventh standard or schedules of "special subjects"—a system which, as Lord Norton has repeatedly shown in the House of Lords, is more and more trenching on the province of secondary schools, to the serious injury of education itself. By the latter plan, which now seems to be finding favour with a certain class of politicians, advanced subjects are being forced upon all elementary scholars alike, whether suited for them by their natural abilities or probable destination in life or not, and so "cram" is encouraged; while by the former plan, only those would receive the benefits of a higher education who would be capable of profiting by it.

The second obstacle to a due supply of suitable candidates for scholarships from elementary schools, viz. the pecuniary loss to the parents, might be met by increasing the value of the scholarships so as to cover, not only the cost of education at the secondary school, but also to provide some

compensation to the parents for loss of wages and additional expense. To effect this, it would only be necessary to reduce the number of the scholarships while increasing their value. The drain upon the endowment of any school would thus remain pretty much the same as before, while the reduction in the number of the scholarships would, by rendering the competition for them more keen, be, in my opinion, almost an unmixed advantage.

Connected with this point, I may notice the fact that there has been for some time growing up among high educational authorities a strong feeling of the danger there may be of doing harm to the poorer classes by the very means which were intended to benefit them. By too indiscriminately securing secondary instruction for boys who would naturally complete their education in elementary schools, there is great risk of injuring their real welfare. They are thereby rendered unfit for their own station, while, by being introduced into the already overcrowded classes of clerks, shop-assistants, schoolmasters, and poor professional men, they are condemned to a perpetual struggle for existence. My experience leads me strongly to appreciate the reasonableness of this objection, but I think that in all its force it applies only to the *too indiscriminate* offer of higher education. If, as

suggested above, the competition for scholarships were rendered keener and more real, we should then find that only those boys who had abilities of a very high order would obtain them, while the same abilities, which secured their first success, would enable them to rise out of the ruck of competitors in their new sphere to positions of competence or even affluence.

There is one other point of considerable importance which seems to call for some remark; I mean the constitution of the boards of governors. For, as the Commissioners remark, "to secure the permanent efficiency of the schools, it is necessary not only to revise the schemes or rules by which they are governed, but to provide thoroughly efficient bodies of trustees to govern them."[1] Most of the abuses which were found to exist in the management of the old foundations have been swept away under the new schemes, but it was found impracticable at first to introduce *all* the reforms into the composition of the governing bodies, and as years have gone on the necessity for further changes has here and there demonstrated itself. The principles which the Commissioners laid down as suggestions for the formation of school trusts are so sound that I cannot do better than

[1] Report, i. p. 644.

quote them at length. "It seems to us," they say, "that in a good school trust three elements should, if possible, be combined: the representation of the interests of the parents, of the interests of education, and of the past management of the school. The parents are most concerned in the welfare of the school and in the success of all the arrangements; and, besides this, their lively interest is of great value, and ought to be encouraged in every way. But whilst they are the most deeply interested—and it is best that they should be encouraged to feel that interest—they are not always the best informed, and there should be some trustees appointed, on the ground of their larger knowledge, to represent education generally. Lastly, it is not good that the management of a school should be liable to sudden and great changes; there should be a continuity in its life, and this should be secured by admitting the method of co-optation, but only to a limited extent."[1] The fundamental thought underlying these wise observations is that a perfect governing body should be *representative*—but representative of the interests of education itself, and of the persons directly concerned in its advancement. It should not be representative of bodies elected for purposes entirely distinct from

[1] Report, i. p. 645.

those of education, or indeed of any merely local interests at all. For, as the Commissioners observe, "trustees who are chosen from a narrow area, and perpetually on the spot, if they have not a tendency to be meddlesome, are at least little likely to take wide and enlightened views. They look to the immediate interests of the parish only, and do not estimate even its interests aright. They lack boldness and they lack experience;"[1] or, as it is put even still more forcibly by Mr. Fearon in his special report: "Local trustees"—by which term he, of course, as well as the Commissioners, would mean not so much those whose residence is in the place, as those whose interest is in the first instance enlisted by purely local matters, and who have come into public notice solely in connexion with such matters—"local trustees," then he says, "are often persons who know very little about educational questions, and think them a great bore. Or, if their attention has been attracted to the school, it has been by the drift of local politics or parish polemics, and they are actuated entirely by their feelings."[2] Indeed, in the cases where the election of governors of schools has been entrusted, if but temporarily, to non-educational bodies, there is danger of the periods of election always bringing

[1] Report, i. p. 249. [2] Id., vii. p. 313.

with them, as they recur, damage to the school. If party feeling runs high, there is risk of much talk being uttered by which the school is entirely misrepresented and injured in the estimation of the public. Those will probably have the most to say on the subject of education who have the least acquaintance with it practically or theoretically; for, alone of all the arts, education is the one which is too often held to require no previous training in its professors or its prophets. And so it is little wonder that the reproach which has long rested on the middle-class education of England, as being "the worst in Europe," still remains to be swept away. The love of notoriety, and the temptation of appearing in the local prints as the deliverers, though but vicariously, of lengthy harangues on such a subject as education, will often be strong enough to overcome that modest reticence which should spring from want of due information. And so, under such conditions, there is great danger that the choice of the men to guard the sacred interests of education should fall, not on those who are most fitted by knowledge of the subject to undertake the charge, but on those who have risen into prominence among their fellows from causes which have no bearing on education at all.

There is thus every reason to urge the carrying

out into practice, where it has not already been done, of the sound principles enunciated by the Commissioners for the formation of governing bodies. The "representation of the interests of education" might be secured by entrusting the nomination of a certain proportion of the governors to the universities, to the College of Preceptors, to some of the many learned bodies, and perhaps, where they are to be found, to school boards. "The representation of the interests of the parents" might be obtained either directly by allowing, as at Bedford, the parents of boys actually in the school to elect one or more representatives, or, if it were thought better to include parents of possible scholars as having a past or prospective interest in the school, a register might be made of persons occupying, within a certain district, houses of a rental and rateable value such as might be supposed suitable to the scholars of the grade of the school in question. The basis for such a calculation might be obtained in the same way as that supplied to the Commissioners by Dr. Farr, of the Registrar-General's Department, when they were computing the number of boys in the upper and middle classes of society.[1] At all events, some steps should at once be taken to give parents, directly or indirectly,

[1] Report, i. p. 97.

a proper representation on the governing body. At present the state of things is in many cases altogether anomalous, those who have the greatest interest in the schools being entirely excluded from their management. For instance, during ten years at Barnet there has been *only one boy, the son of a governor*, in the school; and doubtless this state of things might be paralleled elsewhere. "The representation of the past management of the school" might be provided for, as the Commissioners suggest, by co-optation, or where, as at Barnet, funds are supplied from a different foundation, by allowing the trustees of that foundation to nominate a certain proportion of the governors. To these three elements in the governing body I would suggest the addition of a fourth, viz. "the representation of the teaching staff." This is done at Bedford by allowing the masters of the separate schools of the foundation to nominate governors, and I believe the plan has been found to work well. In many of the old schemes the head-master and sometimes the second master were *ex officio* trustees. Doubtless there are weighty objections to this arrangement which could not apply to a "representation" of the masters. On the other hand, the presence on the board of a practical schoolmaster such as would probably be nominated by the staff,

would secure for the board that knowledge of the "methods of education" which could not fail to be of great value in their management of the school.

The foregoing is a general review of the history and working of the "Endowed Schools Act" of 1869, as suggested to the observation of one who, after considerable experience of the old system, has been engaged in carrying out the provisions of the new from the commencement. As in all things human, there could not fail to be defects which the operation of fifteen years would probably bring to the surface. Such defects as I have myself noted in the course of my own work I have remarked upon in these pages. Doubtless there are others which have escaped my notice, but which may have occurred to those engaged in somewhat different parts of the educational field. It is in the hope of eliciting the results of others' experience, and thereafter of securing, if possible, from the powers that be some attention to the further improvement of middle-class education, that these pages are published.

At the same time, those interested in the great work of middle-class education in England must not disguise from themselves that there are impending other dangers to the good cause besides those of detail touched upon above. In the face of the "Endowed Schools Act," under which schemes

have been framed to restore in great measure, as we have seen, ancient endowments to their original purpose, with that purpose now brought into conformity with the requirements of modern life; in the face of legislation which it was hoped might have been final, at any rate for many generations;—efforts are still being made from various motives and in isolated cases to undo the work of restoration which had been happily accomplished. In some cases these efforts take the form of a demand for the reduction of fees or for the deterioration of the teaching-staff, either through diminishing the number of masters in proportion to scholars, or by lowering their salaries and so impairing their efficiency. But whatever form the attacks may take, the results, though often perhaps without the conscious purpose of the authors themselves, must ultimately be always the same, viz. the reduction of the standard of instruction from the "secondary" type to one little, if at all, above that of "primary" schools. At present the attempts are, it is true, isolated; but, as is well-known—

"Tua res agitur, paries quum proximus ardet"—

and it is of importance for all who are interested to be on the alert. Such efforts have a tendency to increase in number and intensity in proportion to the growth of the "new democracy" as various

questions in Parliament have recently demonstrated. This was a point most forcibly put by Mr. Matthew Arnold in his address at Dulwich College, reported in *The Times* of July 30, 1885. That great authority on education there gave warning of the rocks ahead which threaten to be fatal to the public encouragement of any but the merest elementary education. As he said, the coming democracy would care but little for anything but the education of the lower classes; and for the promotion of this it would probably not scruple much to appropriate funds intended for more advanced culture. It behoves, then, all members of the middle class—which was once thought to be "the backbone of the country," but which is now fast sinking into comparative insignificance—to bestir themselves if they do not wish to see their children deprived of those opportunities of education which, both by ancient inheritance and recent legislation, are their undoubted right. It is more than improbable that the Legislature would ever consent to undo the beneficent work which has slowly but surely been going on for the last fifteen years, but a check may be put for a long time upon further improvement. At all events, as is clear to all who are engaged in the work of education, infinite mischief is done to the good cause by the mere

agitation itself. The minds of parents are unsettled through the uncertainty of the prospect before them, and the work of the schools is paralyzed. To all, then, who have the opportunities of doing so, there is a sacred call to counteract this agitation by every means in their power.

It would be well, too, for those who make their zeal for the "poor" the pretext for laying rash hands upon educational endowments, to consider that it is not among the lower classes alone that the "poor" are to be found. Probably among the middle classes—among persons struggling to keep up a decent appearance on small means, and anxious to secure to their children the same advantages of education as they enjoyed themselves—we should find the pangs of poverty the most keenly felt. To such the provision of "secondary" education at a moderate cost, secured to them from ancient times by our endowed schools, proves an inestimable boon. And assuredly the rights and interests of this class—for which a "grammar-school education" is especially suitable, but which they would hardly be able to obtain unaided for themselves—are as much to be considered as those of the labouring classes, even from the point of view of the well-being of the nation at large.

APPENDIX.

IT will be interesting to compare the anticipations of the Commissioners as to the scope and working of a second-grade school (see p. 12) with their realization in practice as shown by the experience of ten years at Barnet. The following tables have been compiled for that purpose from the school books, etc.

TABLE I.

CLASSES FROM WHICH THE SCHOLARS ARE DRAWN.

Of nearly four hundred and fifty boys who have been entered into the school since the new scheme came into operation, about fifty were the sons of parents returned as of "no occupation," or whose occupation was not stated. The remainder may be classified as follows :—

Sons of	clergy	12
„	medical men	5
„	lawyers	11
„	officers of the army (commissioned and non-commissioned)	10
„	civil servants	22
„	architects, artists, engineers, etc. ...	24
„	journalists, schoolmasters, etc.	11
„	manufacturers	26
„	merchants or wholesale tradesmen	50
„	shopkeepers or retail tradesmen ...	89
„	warehousemen, brokers, agents, commercial travellers, etc.	70
„	bank managers and clerks	10
„	mercantile clerks	18
„	farmers, bailiffs, etc.	9
„	artizans and labourers, etc. (partly by exhibitions from elementary schools)	26

TABLE II.

PROPOSED OCCUPATION OF THE SCHOLARS.

From various causes, such as parents leaving the neighbourhood and withdrawing their sons before their education was completed, or from their being uncertain as to the opening they might find for them, it has not been possible to compile anything like a complete list. But of those who have passed through the school, the following are, as far as can be ascertained, the present or proposed occupations :—

Business (merchants, manufacturers, shopkeepers, and clerks)	10
Professions (law, medicine, engineers, architects, surveyors, etc.)	29
Army	3
Civil Service	5
Banking	8
Stockbroking	5
Insurance	3
Farming, etc., in the Colonies	15
Sea	6

Of the above, four have since leaving school entered at Cambridge, two of whom have taken their degree with high honours ; four have matriculated at London University ; and one has passed through the University of Melbourne.

TABLE III.

PROPORTION OF SCHOLARS TO POPULATION.

In calculating the amount of school accommodation desirable for the supply of "secondary" instruction, the Commissioners (Report, i. p. 99) lay down the principle "that in every *town* large enough to maintain a day school, it is desirable that there should be at once provision for ten boys per thousand of population, with a power of extension." The peculiar circumstances of the "town" of Barnet (made up as it is of parts of three different parishes situated in two different counties), and the existence of an outlying "villa" population in New Barnet and East Barnet within practicable reach of the school, render it difficult to give an accurate statement of the population which ought to be taken into account. Probably this population has grown during the ten years of the operation of the new scheme from about 5000 to between 7000 and 8000, representing, according to the above calculation of the Commissioners, a school growing from about fifty to about eighty boys. The following are the numbers in the school at the end of each scholastic year (July) since the commencement :—

1875 (one Term)	...	1881	...
1876	102	1882	104
1877	108	1883	97
1878	133	1884	96
1879	116	1885	130
1880	110		

The excess over the calculated percentage is partly made up of boys coming by train from Finchley, Hendon, Highgate, Potter's Bar, etc., who have been attracted by the School.

TABLE IV.

PROPORTION OF MASTERS TO BOYS.

With a view to the efficient working of the schools, the Commissioners imply (Report, i. p. 240), that "twenty-five or thirty boys to one master are as many as can be wisely assigned as the proper proportion." Their calculation is derived from a practical observation of the working of classes in efficient schools. The table (Report, i. p. 244), which forms the basis of their opinion, is subjoined :—

Marlborough	(500 boys)	...		...	1	master	to	25	boys.
Uppingham	(300 „)		...		1	„		20	„
Sherborne	(180 „)	...		...	1	„		20	„
Canterbury	(100 „)		...		1	„		15	„
Bradfield	(109 „)	...		...	1	„		11	„
Lancing	(120 „)		...		1	„		12	„
Hurstpierpoint	(340 „)	...		...	1	„		22	„
Shoreham	(280 „)		...		1	„		25	„
Framlingham	(310 „)	...		...	1	„		26	„
Norwich Commercial	(200 „)		...		1	„		30	„

At Barnet (130 boys) it has been found that, with a large number of young boys requiring much individual attention, one master to twenty-six boys supplies a fair working proportion, which could not safely be disturbed.

TABLE V.

FREE SCHOLARS AND EXHIBITIONERS ASSISTED BY THE ENDOWMENT.

(*a*) Number of scholars elected in each year from elementary schools, and educated and provided with books free of expense—

1876	2	1881	2
1877	3	1882	3
1878	2	1883	3
1879	2	1884	3
1880	3	1885	3

(*b*) Number of exhibitions, carrying remission of half-fees, awarded in each year—

1876	1	1881	0
1877	2	1882	1
1878	0	1883	1
1879	2	1884	1
1880	3		

In July, 1885, there were on the foundation twelve free scholars and two exhibitioners, on whom about one-fourth of the net income of the endowment (under £350) is expended.

TABLE VI.

RELATIVE PROMINENCE AND VALUE OF THE PRESCRIBED SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.

The following is the curriculum laid down in the schemes of second-grade schools. Annexed is the number of hours per week assigned at Barnet to each group of subjects in the highest and lowest forms. The full school week consists of thirty-two hours in the upper school, and twenty-eight in the lower. Two hours additional are given to the practical chemistry class.

	Highest Form.	Lowest Form.
Reading, writing, and arithmetic	1½	12½
Geography and history *	5	5
English grammar, composition,† and literature	1½	3
Mathematics	6	0‡
Latin	6½	2
At least one foreign European language §	7½	2
Political economy ‖	—	—
Drawing and vocal music	1½	3
(*Subjects not prescribed.*)		
Natural science ¶	1	0
Extras—drill, examinations, etc. ...	1½	½
Total	32	28

* Including Bible history.

† Exclusive of essays, letters, etc., written at home.

‡ Algebra and Euclid are begun by a few boys.

§ *Two* foreign languages (French and German) are taught as part of the regular school course.

‖ Taught in connexion with history.

¶ With addition of two hours' laboratory work for certain boys.